Word-formation paradigms, compound verbs and parasynthetic compounds in English

Alexandra Bagasheva, Sofia University "St. Kliment Ohtridski"

ParadigMo 2017, Toulouse 19 – 20 June 2017

Compound verbs in English

462 compound verbs (CVs) from English

Lamberty and Schmid (2013: 591) - "speakers of English apparently do not have a productive schema for the creation of genuine verbal compounds at their disposal", yet they are exposed to such compounds and process them and create them with ease.

3 derivational processes involved:

1. Back formation: *to babysit* ← *babysitting*
2. Conversion: *to brownbag* ← *brown bag*
3. Composition proper: *to kick start*, *to sleep-talk*

As a compound verb schema is missing in English, speakers deploy "different processing strategies […], trying to take recourse to possible *base nouns* or *adjectives* and interpreting meanings on the basis of analogies to similar lexical items in the network" (ibid.).

I. Value-foregrounding compound verbs (VFCVs) – e.g. *speed date*, *gift-wrap*, *husband-hunt, blow-dry, rough-dry,* etc. (associated with back-formation and compounding)

Two subschemas:

A) core-participant highlighting	B) manner/effect highliting
name-drop, stage-manage	*stir-fry, rough-dry*

II. Frame re-profiling compound verbs (FRCV) – e.g. *redshirt*, *railroad*, *bear hug*, *moonlight*, *cold-shoulder*, etc. (associated with conversion)

The networks is constituted by overlapping paradigms.

Paradigms in word-formation

The paradigm in WF is a 'network of patterns of relationships', where the content of rule patterns may be highly specific, while their structure remains abstract enough to be applicable to synchronic WF (Beecher 2004).

The rule patterns in a word-formation paradigm are of conceptual-semantic and formal relations and analogy/ pattern (near)identity types.

The analogy-based paradigms have been defined as derivational series or a set of lexemes analogically formed on the same pattern (Hathout, 2011) – e.g. *white collar, blue collar, pink collar, green collar*, *gray collar*, *black collar*, *gold collar*, etc.

The conceptual-semantic relations are based on linguistic schematic encoding of persistent conceptual categories conceptual determined by the ontological types: "THING QUALITY QUANTITY PLACE TIME STATE PROCESS EVENT ACTION RELATION MANNER" (Cruse 2000: 49). Not all possible relations are actualized in a paradigm, only those that are triggered by "pragmatic pressure" (Booij and Lieber 2004: 350).

These are based on different profilings of a background frame (Barsalou and Hale 1993).

Each actualised lexeme out of the set of potential words represents a uniquely profiled portion of a scene/frame.

"(1) a. A word sense's semantic frame (what the word 'means' or 'evokes')

= profile + background frame

b. A word sense's profile: what the word designates, asserts

c. A word sense's background frame: what the word takes for granted, presupposes" (Goldberg 2010: 40).

WF paradigms result as a correlation between **potential**, **possible** and **actual** words.

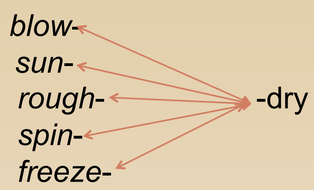
WF paradigms are open, expandable and of varying degrees of specificity.

For explaining the uniformity of CVs in English the boundary between compounding and affixation needs to be conceived of as permeable and fuzzy.

Types of paradigms

Three types of paradigms in the compound network:

A. Form–based (including constituent families)*



B. Frame elaborative/meaning-based (including word nests/series)#

gift wrapping → *gift wrap* → *gift wrapping* → *gift wrapper*$_1$ → *gift wrapper*$_2$ → *gift wrapped*

C. Analogy-based#, i.e. proportional equation between target and model based on compound-internal relations – e.g., *big fish* : X *fish* = *big fish* : *small fish (*X = *small*); *eyewitness* : X *witness* = *ear witness ; speed date* : X *date* = *niche date* (X = *niche*); *head hunt* : X *hunt* = *apartment hunt* (X = *apartment*)

* a posteriori in nature # a priori in nature

A. and C. are realistic – based on actual words exclusively. They have greater predictive potential (much lower than inflectional ones). C. extends to A.

B. is probabilistic – based on actual, possible and potential words (with very low predictive potential).

Compound verb paradigms:

i) from a verb source the following paradigmatic slots are freely actualised: *to apple-polish*, *apple-polishing* (n), *apple-polisher* (n), *apple-polished* (adj.) and *apple-polishing* (adj.)

ii) from a noun source: *namedropping* (n), *to name-drop* (v), *name-dropper* (n) and *namedropping* (adj.).

Paradigmatic actualisation occurs no matter whether:

a) the compound noun is of the root [Adj./N N]N type or a synthetic one [N V$_{-suff}$]N or

b) the compound verb has been derived via composition proper

Parasynthetic adjectives

Parasynthetic compounds are defined as "compounds, constructed via the addition of a derivational suffix to a combination of two lexical stems, though this combination itself is a non-attested form" (Scalise and Vogel 2010: 16) The bulk of verbocentric adjective compounds in English, such as *heartbreaking* are of this type.

If the result of the merging of the N and the V nodes when they are "[e]mbedded under a category-changing affix" (quoted after Melloni and Bisetto 2010: 203) is a compound noun the paradigm is extended to include another noun, two adjectives and (possibly) a CV. While for all CVs at least a minimal paradigm of two nouns and two adjective is established, parasynthetic adjectives correlate with collocations, not with corresponding nouns or verbs as they are formed via inversion (Brömser 1985). None of the adjectives *record-breaking*; *mouth-watering*; *thought-provoking*; *slow-moving*; *far-reaching*; *time-saving*; *forward-thinking*; *man-eating*; *hand-carved*, *computer-based*, etc. is associated with a corresponding CV, though they have a corresponding compound noun, e.g. *good-looker*, *record-breaker*, *time-saver*, etc. with the common semantics of 'bearer of quality X'.

An explanation can be sought in relation to: a) blocking effects (the existence of verb complement constructions with identical meaning, e.g. *to look good*, *to break the record*); b) the nature of the pattern rule generating the paradigm (only form and analogy-based paradigms in compound adjectives) and c) purely conceptual constraints (relating to profiling alternatives from a relational source).

Final comments

Uniform analyses of compounding and compounds in English are only possible within a paradigmatic treatment of word-formation phenomena.

When a compound noun or a compound verb is the initial onomatological realisation of a frame, the actualisation of the paradigm is more extensive.

Both types of CVs (**I** and **II**) in English are associated with sufficiently realised/extensive paradigms (at least two nominal – agentive and action - and two adjective compounds).

When the source is a parasynthetic compound adjective the extendibility of paradigms is restricted to a noun.

For purely cognitive reasons, re-profiling from an initial compound adjective (vaguely relational concept), the actualisations do not include a CV (also a relational but dynamic concept with internal complexity, which presupposes sequential scanning and allows for fictive motion).

Blocking effects associated with existing V + X phrases also constrain the extensibility of such paradigms.

In English three types of paradigms work jointly in organising speakers' knowledge of noun and verb compounds and underlie the "maximization of opportunity" strategy. Only two are operative for compound adjectives.

WF paradigms (in the three different versions) are an a psoteriori fact in word-formation analysis but an a priori fact for speakers in producing/creating new words.

Paradigmatic relations are ones in absentia and result from "cumulative patterns" (Bochner 1993). The consistency and extendibility of word-formation paradigms in compounding stem from the polysemy of the *-ing* and the *-ed* formatives (Hilpert 2015) and the 'flexible' type-token, degrammmaticalised part of speech system in English (Vogel 2000). Analogy and the ubiquity of conversion in English are indispensible in this process.

Reduced extendibility is also associated with compound adjectives in Bulgarian: e.g., *krâvodaryavane*$_{(n)}$ [donating blood] → *krâvodari*$_{(v)}$ → *krâvodaritel*$_{(n)}$ → *krâvodaritelen*$_{(adj.)}$ (all three types) but **dâlbokomislen*$_{(adj.)}$ [profound/ grave] → *dâlbokomislie*$_{(n)}$ → **dâlbokomisli*$_{(v)}$ *dâlbokomislitel$_{(n)}$.

This raises serious questions regarding the typology of paradigmatic relations conditioned by the source, which makes WF paradigms different from inflectional paradigms.

Cross-linguistic research in the typology of paradigmatic relations in compounding will shed light on the possibility of different paradigmatic patterning in affixation and compounding – a promising venue for further research.

Selected References

Arndt-Lappe, S., Bell, M., Schäfer, M., and B. Schlücker (2016) Introduction: Modelling compound properties. *Morphology* 26: 105–108.

Barsalou, L. & Ch. Hale (1993) Components of conceptual representation: From feature lists to recursive frames. In Van Mechelen, I., J. Hampton, R. Michalski and P. Theuns (Eds.), *Categories and concepts: Theoretical views and inductive data analysis*. 97–144. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Brömser, B. (1985) On the Derivation of English Verbal Compounds. In Kürsch-Ner, W. and Rüdiger Vogt, R. (Eds.), *Grammatik, Semantik, Textlinguistik: Akten des 19. Linguistischen Kolloquiums Vechta 1984*. 99–113. Band 1.Tübingen: Niemeyer.

Cruse, A. (2000) *Meaning in Language. An Introduction to Semantics and Pragmatics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Fillmore, Ch. (2006) Frame semantics. In Geeraerts, D. (Ed.), *Cognitive Linguistics. Basic readings*. 373–400. Berlin and New York: Mouton de Gruyter.

Goldberg, A. 2010. Verbs, constructions and semantic frames. In M. Rappaport Hovav, and I. Sichel, eds., *Syntax, Lexical Semantics, and Event Structure*, Oxford University Press, Oxford, UK. 39-58.

Hathout, N. (2011) Une approche topologique de la construction des mots: propositions théoriques et application à la préfixation en *anti-*. In Roché, Michel, Boyé, G., Hathout, N., Lignon, St., and Plénat, M. (Eds.), Des uniés morphologiques au lexique. 251–318. Paris: Hermès / Lavoisier.

Hilpert, M. (2015) From *hand-carved* to *computer-based*: Noun-participle compounding and the upward strengthening hypothesis. *Cognitive Linguistics* 26(1): 113–147.

Lamberty, A. and Schmid, H-J. (2013). Verbal Compounding in English: A Challenge for Usage-Based Models of Word-Formation? *Anglia* 131(4): 591–626.

Langacker, R. (2008) *Cognitive Grammar. A Basic Introduction*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Melloni, Ch. and Bisetto, A. (2010) Parasynthetic Compounds. In Scalise, S. and Vogel, I. (Eds.), *Cross-Disciplinary Issues in Compounding*. 199–217. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing House.

Radden, G. and R. Dirven (2007) *Cognitive English Grammar*. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing House